

# Kinetic study of some flavor and bioactive compounds during fermentation of Parkia biglobosa

Michel Esse, Tagro Guehi, Marc Lebrun, Gilles Morel, Joël Grabulos,

Christian Mestres, Nawel Achir

# ▶ To cite this version:

Michel Esse, Tagro Guehi, Marc Lebrun, Gilles Morel, Joël Grabulos, et al.. Kinetic study of some flavor and bioactive compounds during fermentation of Parkia biglobosa. Journal of Food Processing and Preservation, 2022, 46 (10), 10.1111/jfpp.16888. hal-03936396

# HAL Id: hal-03936396 https://institut-agro-montpellier.hal.science/hal-03936396v1

Submitted on 9 Feb 2023

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



# Kinetic study of some flavor and bioactive compounds during fermentation of Parkia biglobosa

Journal:	Journal of Food Processing and Preservation
Manuscript ID	JFPP-12-21-3307.R2
Wiley - Manuscript type:	Original Article (Direct Via EEO)
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	Esse, Michel Yavo; aLaboratoire de Biotechnologie et Microbiologie des Aliments, Université Nangui Abrogoua Guehi, Tagro S.; Univ Nangui Abrogoua Lebrun, Marc; International Centre in Agronomical Research for Development, Fruits and Citrus fruits Research Institute Morel, Gilles; CIRAD Montpellier-Occitanie Research Centre, Unité Mixte de Recherche QualiSud, F-34398 Montpellier, France Grabulos, Joël; CIRAD Mestres, Christian; CIRAD Achir, Nawel; Montpellier SupAgro
Keywords:	aroma coumpounds, short chain fatty acids, biogenic amines, kinetics



1		
2 3 4	1	Kinetic study of some flavor and bioactive compounds during fermentation of Parkia
5	2	biglobosa
o 7	3	M. Esse <sup>a,b</sup> , T. Guehi <sup>a</sup> , M. Lebrun <sup>b,c</sup> , G. Morel <sup>b,c</sup> , J. Grabulos <sup>b,c</sup> , C. Mestre <sup>b,c</sup> , N. Achir <sup>b,*</sup>
8 9	4	
10 11	5	
12 13	6	<sup>a</sup> Laboratoire de Biotechnologie et Microbiologie des Aliments, UFR de Sciences et
14 15	7	Technologies des Aliments, Université Nangui Abrogoua
16	8	<sup>b</sup> Qualisud, Univ Montpellier, Institut Agro, CIRAD, Avignon Université, Univ de La Réunion,
17 18	9	Montpellier, France.
19 20	10	<sup>c</sup> CIRAD, UMR QualiSud, F-34398 Montpellier, France
21 22	11	
23 24	12	*Corresponding author: Nawel Achir. 1101, avenue Agropolis, 34090 Montpellier Cedex 5,
25 26	13	France.
20 27 28	14	E-mail: <u>nawel.achir@supagro.fr</u>
29 30	15	
31 32	16	
33 34		
35 36		
37 38		
39 40		
40		
42 43		
44 45		
46 47		
48 49		
50		
51 52		
53 54		
55 56		
57 58		
59 60		
50		

# 17 Abstract

Seeds of Parkia biglobosa also called African locust bean (ALBS) are used to produce a condiment by subjecting them to cooking, alkaline fermentation and drying. The objective of this work was to monitor the evolution of the composition of ALBS during spontaneous fermentation. Results showed that the seeds at initial time contained mainly proteins (45%) and lipids (36%). During fermentation, conversion of this initial composition took place to produce ammonium, free amino acids and short chain fatty acids (SCFA) that accounted for 2, 10 and 1.5% db respectively which explains the typical flavor of fermented ALBS. This release was also concomitant with biogenic amine production. Along with ammoniac and SCFA release, pyrazines were the major volatile organic compounds. Composition modulation was well represented by a Verhulst equation of which the dynamic could be modified by the initial composition of the seed, the pre-cooking step, and the fermentation conditions (temperature, aeration). 

31 Key words: soumbala, aroma compounds, short chain fatty acids, biogenic amines, kinetics,

32 Verhulst equation

### **Practical applications**

For nutritional and sustainability reasons, re-integration of vegetable in general and legumes in particular in our diet is a current trend. However, only dish that are appealing to consumers are concretely adopted. Fermentation of legumes is interesting in more than one way. It does not involve heat, so thermo-labile molecules can be preserved and the financial and energetic costs are low. Biological interesting molecules are produced from the metabolism of microorganisms and among them, volatile organic compounds that contribute to enhance the flavour of legume dishes. Soumbala is a meal and/or condiment obtained from the fermentation of African locust bean (Parkia biglobosa) seeds (ALB), a legume widely spread in west Africa. The final typical sensory properties are known to be due to the alkaline fermentation step by *Bacillus* species. This paper presents the kinetics of release of various compounds during spontaneous fermentation that may impact the sensory and nutritional properties of the final product. More precisely, the dynamic of the production of free amino acids, free fatty acids, volatile compounds and biogenic amines are presented and discussed to give insights into the succession of important reactions to control the sensory and nutritional quality of fermented ALBS. This paper shows that a lot can be done to better understand and control the quality of FALBS but also similar protein-rich legumes to modulate the quality of the final products. 

### Introduction

Legumes are a sustainable source of protein and other bio-active compounds that are sensitive to temperature. Fermentation is a non-thermal preservation process that can be applied to legumes. In addition, previous studies showed that due to microbiological activity, the fermentation step increased certain B-group vitamins and decreased anti-nutritional factors widely found in legumes such as alpha-galactosides or phytates (Adeyemo & Onilude, 2013; Granito et al., 2002). Some fermented products are traditionally made from legumes such as soybean, locust bean seed, chickpea, black gram or peanut (Reddy, 2018). A variety of microorganisms are involved: lactic acid bacteria, yeasts, fungus or *Bacillus* producing a variety of tastes, aromas, textures and flavors. The fermented legumes are widely used for flavoring in Asia or West Africa (Odunfa, 1988). 

Among them, a typical and popular West African condiment, called *soumbala*, netetu, afitin, *iru* or *dawadawa* depending on the country, is made by *Bacillus* fermentation of a protein-rich legume, the African locust bean seed (Parkia biglobosa). The traditional process of soumbala production consists of three main steps: cooking the seeds in boiling water for 12 to 24h to soften the hard outer shell and facilitate dehulling, cooking the cotyledons, spontaneous fermentation, and final stabilization by drying (Dakwa et al., 2005; Odunfa, 1985; Yusuf & Rahji, 2012). This production is still done on a small-scale and therefore hardly meets consumer demand in terms of quantity as well as sanitary and organoleptic quality (Odunfa, 1985; Omafuvbe et al., 2004). Organoleptic attributes of fermented African locust bean seed (FALBS) are the result of the production of hundreds of chemical compounds during fermentation (Akanni et al., 2018; Ouoba et al., 2005). These numerous reactions are due to the metabolism of Bacillus species that hydrolyzes proteins to free amino acids, ammonia and other basic nitrogenous compounds. This results in an increase of pH and a so-called "alkaline fermentation", which contributes to the stability of the final product and also to its typical ammoniacal flavor (Akanni et al., 2018; Amoa-Awua et al., 2014; Ouoba et al., 2003). Bacillus not only produce proteases but a diversity of other extracellular hydrolases that also react with the seed carbohydrates and lipids which may contribute to the flavors and aromas development (Odunfa, 1985). 

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) have already been studied in FALBS (Akanni et al., 2018; Ouoba et al., 2005). A total of 116 to 125 VOCs were identified, belonging, by order of quantities, to acids, pyrazines, nitrogen-containing compounds, aldehydes, alcohols, ketones, esters, alkanes, alkenes, benzenes, phenols, and sulfur-containing compounds. Depending on the relative concentration of the different VOCs, some consumers may or may not appreciate the product (Amoa-Awua et al., 2014; Dakwa et al., 2005). Indeed, as for strong aromatic products such as cheese or wine, the balance of the different molecules released and their control is of major importance on the sensory quality and acceptance of the end-product. To achieve this objective, knowledge of the impact of fermentation parameters on the production dynamic of the different volatiles is a first step. Akanni et al. (2018) and Ouoba et al. (2005) worked on the influence of Bacillus strains on the typology of final aroma compounds. Akanni et al. (2018) found that B. subtilis and B. licheniformis contributed to volatile acids, B. cereus to aldehydes and alcohols, and B. amyloliquafaciens produced sulfur-containing compounds. Another way to control VOCs release is to modify the processing conditions. Amoa-Awua et al. (2014) added humectant molecules like NaCl or glycerol during fermentation to limit Bacillus populations. They also tested the effect of steaming after fermentation. Both treatments applied significantly reduced the pungent odor because of a decrease in ammonia content. They found that the VOCs associated with the most undesirable sensory descriptors were ammonia, phenols, indoles, and volatile SCFA (Amoa-Awua et al., 2014; Delgado et al., 2011). On other fermented or ripened products such as cheese, authors found that SCFA had a major sensory impact because of their low odor threshold (Delgado et al., 2011; Faccia et al., 2018; Noronha et al., 2008).

In addition to VOCs some non-volatile compounds may significantly contribute to the organoleptic properties of FALBS. Indeed, previous studies showed that FALBS contained significant amounts of free amino acids (AA) and FFA that can impact its sensory properties (Esse et al., 2021; Odunfa, 1985; Omafuvbe et al., 2004). Indeed, Zhang et al. (2020) showed that AA such as serine, aspartic and glutamic acids, glycine, alanine, proline, cysteine, methionine, and lysine, significantly and positively influenced the sensory descriptors of chicken broth and muscle (Zhan et al., 2020). Other bioactive molecules that may come from AA are biogenic amines (BA). Although BA are present in living cells and contribute to different physiological functions, high consumption via food can cause intoxication. Secondarily, elevated levels of biogenic amines can contribute to the pungent or objectionable odor of

fermented products (Cohen et al., 2014; Dekeirsschieter et al., 2009). The link between biogenic amines and the sensory profile of fermented products was studied in wine. It was proved that agmatine and  $\beta$ -phenylethylamine were correlated to a positive sensory profile, while putrescine, tyramine, histamine, cadaverine and spermidine were linked to negative descriptors (Ordóñez et al., 2017). Finally, FFA like myristic, palmitic, stearic, and eicosanoic acids can also affect the flavor of lipid-rich foods (Zhan et al., 2020). 

Alkaline fermentation of legumes in general, and that of African legumes in particular, is poorly studied. However, the use of fermented legumes contributes to food sustainability and flavor diversity. Therefore, it is important to gain insight into their production and into the reactions that takes place during fermentation that impact their sensory and nutritional quality. Because fermented African locust been seeds is a condiment, the previous studies mainly focused on VOCs profile at the end of processing. However, a better understanding of volatile and non-volatile compounds release throughout the fermentation process would be very helpful for producers to better control the quality of fermented legumes. Therefore, the objective of this paper is to describe the kinetics of bioactive compound production during the spontaneous fermentation of ALBS. 

- 136 Material and methods
- 36 137

138 Plant material

The harvest of African locus bean seeds takes place from March to May. Seeds are dried and are available on local markets till the next harvest season. The seeds used for this study were bought in the region of Khorogo, where most Soumbala production is located, in the north of Côte d'Ivoire.

48 143

# <sup>49</sup> 50 144 Fermentation of African locust bean seeds

Before fermentation, ALBS were first put into boiling water at a ratio seed/water of 1/3 for 24h over a traditional wood fire to prepare dehulling. The seeds were dehulled in a laboratory mortar. Dehulled raw seeds were cooked in boiling water at a ratio seed/water of 1/1 for 1 hour. Spontaneous fermentation of 500 g of cooked cotyledons was done in jute bags placed in small baskets in a chamber regulated at 40 °C for 48 h. Samples were collected at 0, 12, 24, 

2		
3 4	150	<mark>36 and 48 h of fermentation</mark> . To stabilize them, fermented seeds were dried in an oven at 50
5	151	°C for 12 h. The whole process was repeated. A total of 17 samples were collected throughout
7	152	the production process and more precisely: 3 samples of raw seeds, 4 samples of cooked seeds
8 9	153	at time 0 of fermentation, 2 samples after 12, 24 and 36 h of fermentation and finally 4 at the
10 11	154	end of 48 h of fermentation. All samples were dried and stored at -18 ° C.
12 13	155	
14 15	156	Proximate composition
16 17	157	The dry matter content was determined by oven drying at 105°C to a constant weight. The
18 19	158	nitrogen content of all samples was determined using the Kjeldhal method and a conversion
20 21	159	factor of 5.85 was used according to AOAC 979.09. Lipid content was done by Soxhlet
22 23	160	extraction according to AOAC 963.15. Total free fatty acids of the lipids obtained by Soxhlet
23 24	161	extraction was determined by titrimetry according AOAC Cd 3d-63. Ashes were obtained
25 26	162	gravimetrically after incineration of the sample at 550°C for approximately 7h according AOAC
27 28	163	923.03. Total carbohydrates were estimated by subtracting the measured protein, fat, ash,
29 30	164	and water from the total weight.
21		
32	165	
32 33 34	165	Erros and Total Amine Asid
32 33 34 35 36	165 166	Free and Total Amino Acid
32 33 34 35 36 37 38	165 166 167	Free and Total Amino Acid Free amino acids were analyzed following the method used by (Moore et al., 1958), with
32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39	165 166 167 168	Free and Total Amino Acid Free amino acids were analyzed following the method used by (Moore et al., 1958), with modifications. Briefly, 15 mg of samples were weighed and placed in a sealable test tube. To
32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41	165 166 167 168 169	Free and Total Amino Acid Free amino acids were analyzed following the method used by (Moore et al., 1958), with modifications. Briefly, 15 mg of samples were weighed and placed in a sealable test tube. To this, 50 μl of internal standard Norleucine (25 μM) and 4.95 mL of citrate buffer (pH 2.2) were
32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43	165 166 167 168 169 170	Free and Total Amino Acid Free amino acids were analyzed following the method used by (Moore et al., 1958), with modifications. Briefly, 15 mg of samples were weighed and placed in a sealable test tube. To this, 50 μl of internal standard Norleucine (25 μM) and 4.95 mL of citrate buffer (pH 2.2) were added. The solution was mixed for 1 h on a rotational shaker. For total amino acid
32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45	165 166 167 168 169 170 171	Free and Total Amino Acid Free amino acids were analyzed following the method used by (Moore et al., 1958), with modifications. Briefly, 15 mg of samples were weighed and placed in a sealable test tube. To this, 50 μl of internal standard Norleucine (25 μM) and 4.95 mL of citrate buffer (pH 2.2) were added. The solution was mixed for 1 h on a rotational shaker. For total amino acid determination, 10 to 20 mg of sample were weighed in a Schlenk tube and 50 μl of 25 μM
32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47	165 166 167 168 169 170 171 172	Free and Total Amino Acid Free amino acids were analyzed following the method used by (Moore et al., 1958), with modifications. Briefly, 15 mg of samples were weighed and placed in a sealable test tube. To this, 50 $\mu$ l of internal standard Norleucine (25 $\mu$ M) and 4.95 mL of citrate buffer (pH 2.2) were added. The solution was mixed for 1 h on a rotational shaker. For total amino acid determination, 10 to 20 mg of sample were weighed in a Schlenk tube and 50 $\mu$ l of 25 $\mu$ M norleucine and 450 $\mu$ L of 4 M methanesulfonic acid were added. The tube was flushed with
32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48	165 166 167 168 169 170 171 172 173	Free and Total Amino Acid Free amino acids were analyzed following the method used by (Moore et al., 1958), with modifications. Briefly, 15 mg of samples were weighed and placed in a sealable test tube. To this, 50 μl of internal standard Norleucine (25 μM) and 4.95 mL of citrate buffer (pH 2.2) were added. The solution was mixed for 1 h on a rotational shaker. For total amino acid determination, 10 to 20 mg of sample were weighed in a Schlenk tube and 50 μl of 25 μM norleucine and 450 μL of 4 M methanesulfonic acid were added. The tube was flushed with nitrogen, closed and heated at 150°C for 2 h. After cooling, 450 μL of 4 M NaOH was added to
32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50	165 166 167 168 169 170 171 172 173 174	Free and Total Amino Acid Free amino acids were analyzed following the method used by (Moore et al., 1958), with modifications. Briefly, 15 mg of samples were weighed and placed in a sealable test tube. To this, 50 µl of internal standard Norleucine (25 µM) and 4.95 mL of citrate buffer (pH 2.2) were added. The solution was mixed for 1 h on a rotational shaker. For total amino acid determination, 10 to 20 mg of sample were weighed in a Schlenk tube and 50 µl of 25 µM norleucine and 450 µL of 4 M methanesulfonic acid were added. The tube was flushed with nitrogen, closed and heated at 150°C for 2 h. After cooling, 450 µL of 4 M NaOH was added to the hydrolysate, which was diluted to 5 mL with a loading buffer (citrate buffer at pH 2.2).
32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52	165 166 167 168 169 170 171 172 173 174 175	Free and Total Amino Acid Free amino acids were analyzed following the method used by (Moore et al., 1958), with modifications. Briefly, 15 mg of samples were weighed and placed in a sealable test tube. To this, 50 $\mu$ l of internal standard Norleucine (25 $\mu$ M) and 4.95 mL of citrate buffer (pH 2.2) were added. The solution was mixed for 1 h on a rotational shaker. For total amino acid determination, 10 to 20 mg of sample were weighed in a Schlenk tube and 50 $\mu$ l of 25 $\mu$ M norleucine and 450 $\mu$ L of 4 M methanesulfonic acid were added. The tube was flushed with nitrogen, closed and heated at 150°C for 2 h. After cooling, 450 $\mu$ L of 4 M NaOH was added to the hydrolysate, which was diluted to 5 mL with a loading buffer (citrate buffer at pH 2.2). Sample extracts for free and total amino acid analysis were filtered using a 0.45 $\mu$ m membrane
32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54	165 166 167 168 169 170 171 172 173 174 175 176	<b>Free and Total Amino Acid</b> Free amino acids were analyzed following the method used by (Moore et al., 1958), with modifications. Briefly, 15 mg of samples were weighed and placed in a sealable test tube. To this, 50 µl of internal standard Norleucine (25 µM) and 4.95 mL of citrate buffer (pH 2.2) were added. The solution was mixed for 1 h on a rotational shaker. For total amino acid determination, 10 to 20 mg of sample were weighed in a Schlenk tube and 50 µl of 25 µM norleucine and 450 µL of 4 M methanesulfonic acid were added. The tube was flushed with nitrogen, closed and heated at 150°C for 2 h. After cooling, 450 µL of 4 M NaOH was added to the hydrolysate, which was diluted to 5 mL with a loading buffer (citrate buffer at pH 2.2). Sample extracts for free and total amino acid analysis were filtered using a 0.45 µm membrane filter and injected into the amino acid analyzer (Biochrom 30+, Biochrom, France), using a
32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 3 54 55 56	165 166 167 168 169 170 171 172 173 174 175 176 177	Free and Total Amino Acid Free amino acids were analyzed following the method used by (Moore et al., 1958), with modifications. Briefly, 15 mg of samples were weighed and placed in a sealable test tube. To this, 50 μl of internal standard Norleucine (25 μM) and 4.95 mL of citrate buffer (pH 2.2) were added. The solution was mixed for 1 h on a rotational shaker. For total amino acid determination, 10 to 20 mg of sample were weighed in a Schlenk tube and 50 μl of 25 μM norleucine and 450 μL of 4 M methanesulfonic acid were added. The tube was flushed with nitrogen, closed and heated at 150°C for 2 h. After cooling, 450 μL of 4 M NaOH was added to the hydrolysate, which was diluted to 5 mL with a loading buffer (citrate buffer at pH 2.2). Sample extracts for free and total amino acid analysis were filtered using a 0.45 μm membrane filter and injected into the amino acid analyzer (Biochrom 30+, Biochrom, France), using a lithium cation exchange resin column and ninhydrin as a detection compound. All total and
32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 9 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58	165 166 167 168 169 170 171 172 173 174 175 176 177 178	Free and Total Amino Acid Free amino acids were analyzed following the method used by (Moore et al., 1958), with modifications. Briefly, 15 mg of samples were weighed and placed in a sealable test tube. To this, 50 μl of internal standard Norleucine (25 μM) and 4.95 mL of citrate buffer (pH 2.2) were added. The solution was mixed for 1 h on a rotational shaker. For total amino acid determination, 10 to 20 mg of sample were weighed in a Schlenk tube and 50 μl of 25 μM norleucine and 450 μL of 4 M methanesulfonic acid were added. The tube was flushed with nitrogen, closed and heated at 150°C for 2 h. After cooling, 450 μL of 4 M NaOH was added to the hydrolysate, which was diluted to 5 mL with a loading buffer (citrate buffer at pH 2.2). Sample extracts for free and total amino acid analysis were filtered using a 0.45 μm membrane filter and injected into the amino acid analyzer (Biochrom 30+, Biochrom, France), using a lithium cation exchange resin column and ninhydrin as a detection compound. All total and free amino acid contents were determined except total tryptophan, which is the most fragile

2 3	470	
3 4	179	amino acid and is destroyed by the extraction procedure. Amino acid standards were also run
5 6	180	in a similar way as the samples.
7 8 9	181	
9 10 11	182	Biogenic amines
12 13	183	Analysis of biogenic amines was carried out based on the procedure described in (Yoon et al.,
14 15	184	2015). Briefly, 20 mL of 0.4 M perchloric acid were added to 5 g of the samples, and the
16 17	185	mixture was homogenized using a vortex mixer (Vortex-Genie, USA), reacted in a cold
18	186	chamber at 4 °C for 2 h, and centrifuged at 3000 ×g at 4 °C for 10 min. The supernatant was
19 20	187	collected, and the residue was extracted again with an equal volume of 0.4 M perchloric acid.
21 22	188	Both supernatants were combined, and the final volume was adjusted to 50 mL with 0.4 M
23 24	189	perchloric acid. The extract was filtered then, derivatization of biogenic amines was carried
25	190	out as follows: one mL of extract (or standard solution) was mixed with 200 $\mu$ L of 2 M sodium
20 27 28 29 30 31 32 33	191	hydroxide and 300 µL of saturated sodium bicarbonate solution. Two mL of dansyl chloride
	192	solution (10 mg/mL) prepared in acetone were added to the mixture, which was then
	193	incubated at 40 °C for 45 min. Residual dansyl chloride was removed by adding 100 μL of 25%
	194	ammonium hydroxide. After incubation for 30 min at 25 °C, the volume of mixture was
34 35	195	adjusted with acetonitrile to 5 mL. Finally, the mixture was centrifuged at 3000 × g for 5 min,
36 27	196	and the supernatant was filtered through 0.2 µm-pore-size filters (Millipore Co., USA). The
37 38	197	filtered supernatant was kept at -25 °C before HPLC injection. An HPLC unit equipped with a
39 40	198	UV-Vis detector (Dionex Ultimate 3000, France) was employed. An ACE C18 column (5µm
41 42	199	particle size, 250 mm × 4.6 mm, ACE, France) was used for the separation of the biogenic
43 44	200	amines, and the samples were eluted with a step gradient of ammonium acetate (0.1 M
45	201	solvent A) and acetonitrile (solvent B) as the mobile phases at the flow rate of 1 mL/min. The
46 47	202	program was set for a linear gradient starting from 50% of solvent B to reach 90% of the
48 49	203	solvent at 19 min. The sample volume injected was 10 µL and monitored at 254 nm. Standard
50 51	204	stock solutions of biogenic amines, putrescin, cadaverine, histamine and ß-phenylethylamine
52	205	were senarately prepared at 10 mg/L concentration in distilled water
53 54	205	were separately prepared at 10 mg/ E concentration in distinct water.
55	206	

207 Volatile compound

Page 9 of 40

3 ⊿	208	Firstly, 1.5 g of ground sample was placed and sealed in 10 mL headspace vials with 1.4 mg of
5	209	the internal standard trans-2-octenal and extracted by headspace solid phase micro extraction
6 7	210	(HS-SPME) (Corrales et al., 2017). The extraction was performed at 60°C with 15 min
8 9	211	incubation and 30 min trapping and shaking using a polydimethylsiloxane/divinylbenzene
10 11	212	fiber (PDMS/DVB 65 mm, SUPELCO, Bellefonte, PA, USA). The volatile compounds were
12	213	identified using gas chromatography/mass spectrometry. A tandem gas chromatograph
14	214	6890/MSD 5973 N (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, USA) and a Gerstel autosampler MPS-2
15 16	215	were used. A non-polar capillary column DB-5MS (5% diphenyl, 95% dimethyl siloxane, 30 m
17 18	216	$ imes$ 0.250mm $ imes$ 0.25 $\mu$ m) and a polar capillary column DBWax UI (polyethylene glycol 30 m $ imes$
19 20	217	0.25mm × 0.25 μm), both from J&W Scientific (Folsom, CA, USA), were used with a carrier gas
21 22	218	hydrogen flow rate of 1.2 mL/min. Then, fiber was desorbed at 250 °C in splitless mode and
23	219	was eluted with the following temperature program: 3 °C per min from 40 °C to 170 °C, then
24 25	220	10 °C per min up to 240 °C and held for 10 min. Mass spectrum were recorded in EI+ mode at
26 27	221	70 eV within a range of 40 to 350 Da. Analyzer and source temperatures were 150°C and
28 29	222	250°C, respectively. Data were analyzed with Masshunter version B. 06.00 (Agilent
30 31	223	Technologies, Palo Alto, USA). The identification of peaks was performed by comparing their
32	224	mass spectra with those from the NIST 2011 (National Institute of Standard Technology)
33 34	225	database. Co-injection on both columns of alkanes from C8 to C20 (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis,
35 36	226	MO. USA) was used to calculate Kovats retention index (RI) for comparison with those found
37 38	220	on the Elavornet. Pherobase and NIST websites
39	~~/	

# 229 Statistical analysis

One-way ANOVA was used to analyze the effect of fermentation time on the macronutrient
composition in FALBS. If significantly different, means were further compared using Tukey's
test. One-way ANOVA was also done to select discriminant volatile compounds before
principal component analysis (PCA). Statistical analyses were performed with Statistica<sup>®</sup>
(StatSoft Inc., USA).

53 235 

- 55 236 Kinetic modelling
- 57 237

Microbiological growth during fermentation is assumed to be logistic and that production of different bioactive compounds produced by microorganisms is often linearly correlated to population, therefore we chose the usual Verhulst logistic function to represent production (Peleg et al., 2007; Yang et al., 2011): 

242 
$$[X](t) = [X]_{\infty} \times \frac{1}{1 + L \times \exp^{(-k \times t)}}$$
 eq. (1)

Where [X] is the bioactive compound in g or mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> (DB) at the time t (h) of fermentation,  $[X]_{\infty}$ is the asymptotic value of the curve that can be assimilated to the maximal concentration of X at the end of fermentation, k is the logistic growth rate or steepness of the curve while L refers to its sigmoid shape. 

For each compound, the constants  $[X]_{\infty}$ , L and k were identified by non-linear regression thanks to the Levenberg-Marquardt minimization procedure using the Matlab<sup>®</sup> software (The Mathworks Inc., Natick, Mass, USA).

### Parameter standard deviation

The standard deviations on identified parameters were determined via the method of bootstrapping simulations (Huet et al., 1992). The principle is the generation of a high number (500) of resamples of the observed dataset (and of equal size to the observed dataset) added with a Gaussian perturbation within the experimental standard deviations. The mean and standard deviations were estimated for each constant rate from the 500 values. 

### Results

### Macro-composition evolution during fermentation

Raw ALBS were composed of 5% ashes, 25 % total carbohydrates, 25 % lipids and 45 % proteins, on a dry basis (DB). The cooking step resulted in significant leaking of carbohydrates that decreased from 25 to 15% DB while proportions of lipids increased to 36% and proteins remained stable. The cooking step also resulted in hydration of the dry seeds up to 60 to 70%, which was necessary for fermentation (Esse et al., 2021). 

Fig. 1 represents the evolution of these macro-constituents on a DB during fermentation. In general, the composition of dry matter was quite stable. The major constituent being proteins, 

then lipids and finally the rest of dry matter is composed mainly of carbohydrates and

minerals. A slight change came from an increase of lipids from 35 to 42%. This increase was

due to the preferential consumption of carbohydrates and proteins by microorganisms during

fermentation and was already observed in other studies about ALBS fermentation (Azokpota

et al., 2006; Esenwah & Ikenebomeh, 2008). However, within each nutrient category,

especially proteins, transformations occurred because of microorganism actions.

275 Main changes of biological components during fermentation

Figure 2 a) b) and c) show the release of free amino acids (AA), ammonium and free fatty acids (FFA) respectively. For the three indicators, the logistic model of Verhulst fitted well the experimental data. Therefore, we can assume that their production was linked with the usual shape of microorganism growth of *Bacillus*. Production of AA, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and FFA started after about 10 h of fermentation. After an exponential increase, the maximal concentration was achieved after about 25 h for FFA, and 35 h for  $NH_4^+$  and FFA. AA and  $NH_4^+$  are released by protein degradation, while FFA comes from triglyceride hydrolysis. The maximal value of AA was almost 12 % which represented one third of the proteins. In their experiments, (Odunfa, 1985) found a level of 8% of AA at the end of fermentation. FFA reached 7% which represented 20% of the total lipids. The equation parameters of Verhulst are presented in Figure 3. The k values (equation 1) were higher for AA, then ammonium and lastly FFA which is consistent with our observations of proteins being consumed before lipids. The sigmoid curvature of free amino acids and ammonium release (L) was also higher than that of FFA. Therefore, we can say that during ALBS fermentation, the release of free amino acids occurred first followed by ammonium because of protein and amino acid catabolism and in a second time lipid catabolism occurred with the release of FFA. Odunfa (1985) showed that protease activity was higher than that of lipase. He also represented amino acid release of which the trend appeared logistic as well. Release of AA,  $NH_4^+$  as well as FFA influence the flavor of fermented ALBS. Indeed, some AA can contribute to the umami taste (Lioe et al., 2010), while NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> induces the strong ammonia smelling characteristic of FALBS (Amoa-Awua et al., 2014). At last, FFA are major contributors to the flavor produced from lipolysis (Noronha et al., 2008). FFA and particularly palmitic, stearic and eicosanoic acids that are present in FALBS can produce a fatty flavor (Zhan et al., 2020). Previous studies showed that these three fatty acids were the most important after linoleic and oleic acids in ALBS (Esse et al., 2021). In addition to this direct 

contribution to the sensory properties of FALBS, AA and FFA are precursors of other bioactive compounds shown in Figure 2 d) and e) which are biogenic amines (BA) and short chain fatty acids (SCFA). Those two compounds also behaved according to the Verhulst model and were produced after amino acid release. Indeed, BA and SCFA growth parameters were close with k equal to 0.16 and 0.15 respectively. Therefore, they could be considered as secondary products of amino acids. Mohamed et al. (2001) also showed that BA were produced after AA, which may be interesting as a tool to control fermentation or ripening time of Egyptian salted-fermented fish (Mohamed et al., 2001; Rabie et al., 2009). SCFA are fatty acids that have one to seven carbons. SCFA maximal content at the end of fermentation was 1.7%. SCFA could come from sugars, proteins and lipids (Akanni et al., 2018; Dursun et al., 2017). These molecules confirm the proteolysis and lipolysis that occur during ALBS fermentation and are known to contribute significantly to the acidic, sour, and pungent flavor of FALBS (Odunfa, 1985; Omafuvbe et al., 2004). In cheese, a rich protein and lipid product, SCFA contribute greatly to the flavor and its typicity and could be produced by anaerobic bacterial fermentation linked to the metabolism of *Bacillus* (Pasvolsky et al., 2014). 

## 33 316 **Release Kinetics of amino acids**

The composition in amino acids of ALBS was presented in a previous article (Esse et al., 2021). The major amino acids were glutamic acid (Glu) at 20 %, followed by aspartic acid (Asp) at 10%, leucine (Leu) and lysine (Lys) at both 7%, arginine (Arg) and valine (Val) at 6%, alanine (Ala), proline (Pro), glycine (Gly), phenylalanine (Phe) at 5%, serine (Ser), isoleucine (Ile), tyrosine (Tyr), histidine (His), threonine (Thr) at 2 to 4%, and cysteine (Cys), methionine (Met) and ornithine (Orn) at concentrations <2%. Figure 4 shows the release of the different free amino acids. Among all amino acids of the legume, only 13 where significantly released and/or observable during fermentation. To be easily represented, the amino acids were presented on three different figures 4 a), b) and c) in g/100g DB. For all amino acids, the Verhulst function fitted the experimental data well which is consistent with previous observations (Odunfa, 1985). Among acid AA, Glu was the most produced reaching nearly 1.5 % DB which is consistent with the initial composition of the seed. This observation was already done and Odunfa (1985) stated that the release of Glu was particularly interesting in FALBS since Glu is a flavor enhancer. The author explained this high release by the ability of Bacillus species to accumulate Glu extracellularly. Cyst and Met were among the least produced which is 

coherent with the low values of sulfur AA in legumes (Krishnan, 2005). However, Asp release was as low as the sulfur AA which was not consistent with the initial composition of the seed. Çalik et al. (2000) showed that Bacillus licheniformis was able to express the protease activity differently as a function of the oxygenation condition. In addition, the types of amino acids that were excreted to the fermentation medium also depended on the oxygenation conditions. The least release of amino acids of the aspartic acid-group could be explained by the need of this AA in Bacillus cells and a low asparagine synthetase expression (EC. 6.3.1.4) or high-aspartate kinase (EC. 2.7.2.4) activity (Çalık et al., 2000). Another non-observable AA was Arg, although it was the fifth in terms of initial quantity. However, Çalik et al. (2000) did not observe its non-excretion. With Cys (Fig. 4a), Phe and Lys (Fig 4c), Leu, Ile, Val, and Trp (fig 4 b) are essential amino acids. Leu, Val, Phe, and Lys releases were close to 1% at the end of fermentation. As their initial content in the seed was about 3% DB, nearly 30% of the amino acids were in their free form at the end of fermentation which may be beneficial for a good assimilation of these essential amino acids (Ito et al., 2018; LU et al., 2017). Odunfa (1985) also observed a high release of valine. Recommended daily amounts for these essential AA are 25 to 40 mg/kg/day as a function of AA (FAO/WHO/UNU, 2007). Therefore, the need for people weighing 60-80 kg is 1.5 to 3 g/day. Assuming one portion of this condiment weighs 20 g, a meal can provide 20 to 30% of recommended daily intake. The non-essential AA Tyr also reached 1% while His and Orn reached 0.5%. At the end of fermentation, these AA were at 80, 40 and 60 % in their free form respectively. Therefore, these compounds may be not crucial for *Bacillus* cell metabolism or were favorably excreted.

354 Release Kinetics of biogenic amines

The main BA found and presented in Fig. 4d were by order of importance spermidine (Sper), β-phenylethylamine (Phen), histamine (Hist), pustrescine (Put), and cadaverine (Cad). Sper comes from from Arg, Phen from Phe, Hist from His, Put from Arg and Cad from Lys. The final levels were 200, 90, 65, 30, 40 ppm respectively leading to a total close to 400 ppm (Fig. 4). This total value reached the limit defined by the European regulation for products having undergone an enzymatic maturation treatment. Therefore, BA production must be monitored carefully during ALBS fermentation. The high content of Sper may be due to the high conversion from Arg, and may explain the absence of this AA in Fig 4. An intermediary compound of this conversion can be Put. In cured ham, Arg content was low due to its 

hydrolysis to ammonia and Orn, followed by decarboxylation to Put that was most largely present in aged hams (Virgili et al., 2007). Also, it was suggested that the amounts of Put and other BA in hams could be inversely related to the levels of their amino acid precursors and that some BA generation may be regarded as the last step of the decarboxylation-deamination mechanism starting with Arg (Alfaia et al., 2004). For the kinetic aspect, the most rapidly produced free AA were Phe, His, Met, Glu, and Ile with k>0.5 (Figure 3). Regarding BA, the most rapidly produced were Hist, Cad, and Put respectively and their maximal concentration was reached at the early stage of fermentation, that is to say after about 10 hours. Hist production was highly correlated to Hist release. Cad was produced more rapidly than its precursor but rapidly reached a maximum. Put was probably produced very rapidly from Arg, but the quantity of this BA was low, probably due to its rapid conversion to Sper. Phen and Sper were produced in the second part of fermentation and their maximal value was reached after 30 hours of fermentation. It is important to remark that Sper and Hist did not fit Verhulst model after reaching their maximal content. Indeed, their content decreased suggesting a potential degradation. This reaction may be conducted by microorganisms including certain strains of *Bacillus* (Alvarez & Moreno-Arribas, 2014; Lee et al., 2016). 

### **Release Kinetics of Short chain fatty acids**

The most odorant SCFA are present in Fig 5a. They were composed of formic (C1), acetic (C2), butyric (C4) and the branched 3-methylbutanoic acid also called isovaleric acid (C5). Their respective odor threshold in air in ppm is 8, 5 10<sup>-3</sup>, 3 10<sup>-3</sup> and 8 10<sup>-5</sup> respectively. Formic acid odor is described as sharp acetic and fruity fermented, that of acetic acid, sour vinegar, while butyric acid odor is cheesy, rancid and that of isovaleric acid, pungent. Less odorant SCFA are on Fig 5b with lactic, oxalic, malic, tartaric, and citric acids (C2, C3, C4 and C6 respectively). In addition to carboxylic function, lactic, malic, and tartaric acids have one or two alcohol functions and oxalic and citric acids are respectively di- and tri- acids which may contribute to decreasing their volatility and therefore increasing their odor threshold. An interesting point is that the odorant SCFA were produced during fermentation while the others decreased (tartrate and citrate being the most abundant in the raw seeds) or increased and then decreased (oxalate, malate, and lactate). SCFA may have different origins. Butyric acid may come from FFA like in cheese (Faccia et al., 2018; Poveda, Justa María et al., 2008). Acetic acid may come from the oxidation of ethanol during fermentation while Isovaleric acid (3methylbutanoic acid) from branched amino acids like valine, leucine, and isoleucine. Among volatile acids, 2-methylbutanoic and 3-methylbutanoic acids were found to contribute largely to the typical aroma of cheese or fermented ALBS (Akanni et al., 2018; Poveda, Justa María et al., 2008). Also, the Verhulst function described odorant SCFA release well. The first acids produced were acetic and formic acids at a slow rate followed by isovaleric and then butyric acids that exhibited a more logistic shape (higher L parameter) and slightly higher rates of formation (Figure 3). This order of release is concomitant with the successive consumption of carbohydrates, proteins and lipids as substrates for Bacillus. Therefore, SCFA are prevalent compounds released throughout ALBS fermentation but their individual prevalence could be modulated by the macro-composition of ALBS and by fermentation time. This modulation could markedly influence odor but also taste of FALBS.

# 408 Evolution of the different VOCs families

A total of 111 volatile organic compounds (VOCs) were collected from the different samples: raw seeds, and cotyledons during different times of fermentation which is consistent with the number of 116-125 found in previous studies on similar products (Akanni et al., 2018; Ouoba et al., 2005). A total of 13 pyrazines, 9 aldehydes, 11 ketones, 15 esters, 16 acids, 15 alcohols, 1 alkene, 1 amine, 2 pyridines, 8 benzenes, 2 phenols, 2 sulfur compounds, 6 amides, 1 furan and 9 others were found. 60 of the most frequent VOCs constituting the 'volatolom' of our samples of FALBS are presented in Table 1. These compounds were found in other protein-rich products like beans, cheese, milk, shrimp, or cured fish such as anchovies or fermented products such as coco beans, wine, or free amino acid-rich products such as mushrooms (Aisala et al., 2019; Akanni et al., 2018; Amoa-Awua et al., 2014; Dehaut et al., 2014; Dursun et al., 2017; Kouakou-Kouamé et al., 2020). During cocoa bean fermentation, there is a succession of VOCs families as a function of fermentation time due to microbial succession of a wide range of yeasts, lactic acid and acetic acid bacteria (Kuhnert et al., 2020; Schwan, 1998). In the case of ALBS fermentation, flora is supposed to be more uniform and mainly composed of Bacillus conducting an alkaline fermentation. Therefore, the study of the release kinetics of VOCs in FALBS may contribute to explaining the metabolism behavior of Bacillus and its relationship with the final aroma. 

Figures 6 and 7 present the evolution of the different families of VOCs during production of
 fermented ALBS. The main constituents of raw seeds were alcohols (~30%), acids and esters.

After cooking, a marked change occurred with an increase of pyrazines from 10 to nearly 60 % of VOCs. This increase was certainly due to the Maillard reactions during cooking but also the leaking of some hydrophilic or thermosensitive compounds like alcohols and esters while the acids remained stable. After fermentation, a second marked change was observed with the prevalence of acids that account for more than 45% of the VOCs. Pyrazines still remained at a high concentration as can be observed in Figure 5a). Their production was not monotonous. Indeed, their content increased at the beginning of fermentation but decreased after 12 h so their final quantity was not significantly different from that at the beginning. The total of VOCs increased significantly during fermentation (p<0.05) and were strongly positively correlated to the production of acids (p<0.05). As can be seen in Fig 5b), another category of product that rose markedly during fermentation were amides (p<0.05). The other compounds: alcohols, aldehydes, esters, ketones, and furans, decreased at the beginning of fermentation (specially for aldehydes, esters and ketones) but were produced after 24 h. However, their final content was still inferior or not significantly different to t=0 h. Sulfur compounds were in small quantity and did not evolve significantly.

# 444 Succession of VOCs during fermentation

To be more specific about the different molecules that evolved significantly during FALBS production, ANOVA analysis was carried out for all VOCs followed by PCA only on the molecules that discriminated the fermentation time. The results of PCA are presented in Fig. 8. The projection of different samples showed that PCA enabled the discrimination of raw seeds (RS) from the cooked cotyledons before fermentation (0 H). The typical VOCs that were positively correlated with the raw seeds were: ethanol, hexanol, carbon disulfide, butanal and 4,6,6-trimethylbicyclo[3.1.1]hept-3-en-2-one. This last molecule is also called verbenone and has a camphoreous odor (Table 1). Alcohols are typical of the raw seeds and among them 1-hexanol which is responsible for green notes than can be found in peas for instance (C. Zhang et al., 2020). 

These compounds were lost significantly during cooking and may therefore contribute only slightly to the flavor of the final product. However, some VOCs were positively correlated with t=0 hours and therefore may have appeared during cooking. Among them, one pyrazine, 2,3-Dimethyl-5-ethylpyrazine that has a strong roasted aroma, could have come from the long cooking period (Qian & Reineccius, 2002). We also found xylene which is an aromatic hydrocarbon and may be considered as contamination arising from wood-cooking (Ciecierska,
2020). Lastly, 4-methanol-himidazole is a late Maillard compound (Licht et al., 1992). These
two last compounds are cyclic neo-formed compounds produced because of the very long
cooking time that may have an adverse effect on health at high concentrations.

The compounds positively correlated with the first hours of fermentation were aldehyde (benzaldehyde and 2,5-dihydroxybenzaldehyde), esters (ethyl acetate), ketones (acetoin, 2,3 butadione, 2-decanone and 2-octanone), 2-pentyl-thiophene and 2-pentyl-Furan. 2-pentylfuran and 1-octen-3-ol compounds are known for contributing to the green and beany aroma of cooked beans (Owens et al., 1997). They were also found in sugar-rich fermented products such as grape wine, alcoholic beverages made from sorghum and particularly fruit wines involving yeasts (Feng et al., 2015; Song et al., 2019; H. Zhang et al., 2021). Therefore, these compounds may come from the cooking process and the early stage of fermentation when Bacillus consume sugars and provide fruity notes. Owens et al. (1997) reported that Bacillus subtilis when grown in sugars excrete alpha-acetolactate that is later decarboxylated to acetoin which is consumed when carbohydrate depletion occurs. He also noticed that the other ketones produced may be the result of lipid and/or amino acid degradation. However, these compounds have a relative high odor threshold so they may only contribute slightly to the aroma of FALBS.

The other group that appeared during fermentation were pyrazines. Their maximum content was achieved between 10 to 15 h of fermentation. The main pyrazines by order of quantity were 2,5-dimethyl-pyrazine, methyl-pyrazines, ethyl-pyrazine, 2-ethyl-6-methyl-pyrazine, and 2,6-dimethyl-pyrazine. Pyrazines in general and 2,5-dimethyl-pyrazine in particular were also found during Bacillus fermentations (Akanni et al., 2018; Besson et al., 1997; Ouoba et al., 2005; Owens et al., 1997). Owen et al. (1997) also noticed that the free amino acids, the alkaline pH and the incubation temperature (40 °C) favored the production of pyrazines. Ouoba et al. (2003), during fermentation in controlled conditions in the laboratory with different Bacillus starters, found that the profile of pyrazines, ketones, aldehydes and esters was dependent on the Bacillus species. In our case, we observed that the amount of pyrazine significantly decreased at the end of fermentation until it reached the initial level just after cooking. This decrease was also noticed but not explained by Owen et al. (1997). Therefore, the roasted notes of the final product due to pyrazines may depend on the fermentation time. 

Contrary to pyrazines, acids were released constantly throughout fermentation. The main acid in quantity was 3-methyl-butanoic acid (isovalerate) as observed previously, followed by 2methyl-butanoic acid. In addition, with these two volatile acids, we found 2-methyl-2-butenoic acid also called tiglic acid. It is supposed to be formed from isoleucine and presents ripe fruit notes (Y. Zhang et al., 2018). Simultaneously with acids, esters were formed. Akanni et al. (2018) noticed that esters have been known to constitute a major volatile compound in African fermented condiments. The esters are presumably the consequence of chemical reactions between acids and alcohols and produce floral and fruity notes. Logically, the main esters found were that of the main acids, i.e., 3-methyl-butanoic ester, 2-methyl-butanoic ester, and acetic acid-methyl ester. The other secondary products released were amides that were correlated to the last hours of fermentation. The main amides were acetamide, propanamide, butanamide, 2-methyl-propanamide and 3-methyl-butanamide. These molecules may come from the reaction between free amino acids and acids and were observed in cocoa beans and wine (Kuhnert et al., 2020; Schueuermann et al., 2016). Therefore, acids are involved in different reactions with alcohols and free amino acids which may explain the slight decrease of certain acids like formate or malate at the end of fermentation as observed in Fig 5a and b. Lastly, two other VOCs were found at the very final stage, which were phenol, a degradation product of tyrosine, and 2-piperidinone found in fermented bean (Kim & Chung, 2008; Mathus et al., 1995). Phenol is an irritant and considered objectionable while 2-piperidinone, is ammoniacal and pepper-like (Maraval et al., 2008). Again, specific monitoring of the last hours of fermentation could be of interest to control the concentration of these two last compounds. 

### Conclusion

This paper showed the release of different bioactive compounds during spontaneous FALBS production that have sensory, nutritional and toxicity impacts. During fermentation, VOCs number was multiplied by a ten-fold which confirm the very important impact of this step on the final quality of FALBS. This is because ALBS is a legume rich in proteins and lipids and because Bacillus species involved in this fermentation are able to metabolize them with their proteases and lipases. The results also highlighted the important kinetic aspects of this fermentation. The main early products are a result of protein catabolism and are free amino acids with glutamic acid presenting the highest release and some biogenic amines like

cadaverine, putrescine and histamine. In a second phase, SCFA and FFA releases occurred. Particularly, the cleavage of branched-chain amino acids produced isovaleric acid which was the main acid produced. The odorant butyric acid was produced later and at a lower content certainly due to triglyceride hydrolysis. Therefore, we can conclude that the first 20 hours of fermentation of ALBS lead to maximal contents in acids contributing significantly to the "sour, pungent and cheesy" notes of FALBS. During this phase, pyrazines were also produced in high certainly giving roasted notes to FABLS. Lastly, esters, amides and phenol were produced from complex reactions between amino acids, alcohols and acids produced in the previous phases. Maximal ammonia content was achieved during this phase increasing the final pH of FABLS. 

The perspectives of this research will be to work firstly on the raw material. Indeed, raw seed composition and their pre-treatment (cooking) are important to monitor the proportion of carbohydrates, proteins and lipids that are the substrates of fermentation. Secondly, it would be important to deepen the link between Bacillus species growth and the bioactive compounds release during fermentation. To do so, a controlled fermentation should be done and Bacillus population, enzyme activities, AA, BA, SCFA, and VOCs should be monitored as a function of fermentation time. Lastly, the link between fermentation conditions (temperature, aeration) and these dynamics would be very crucial to make in order to understand the possible levers of bioactive compounds modulation in the final product.

# 0 543 **Conflicts of interest statement**

544 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal 545 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

<sup>47</sup> 547 Figure and Table list

<sup>49</sup> 548 **Figure 1. Evolution of macro-constituents during fermentation of ALBS** 

Figure 2. Release in g/100 g DB of a) free amino acids (AA), b) ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>), c) free fatty acids (FFA), d) biogenic amines (BA), e) short chain fatty acids (SCFA) during ALBS fermentation. Error bars represent the standard deviation (n = 3) and lines represent the modelled data.

Figure 3. Verhulst equation parameters for all compound releases during fermentation of
 ALBS

2		
3 ∡	555	Figure 4. Release of a), b), c) free amino acids and d) biogenic amines during ALBS
5	556	fermentation. Error bars represent the standard deviation (n = 3) and lines represent the
6 7	557	modelled data.
8 9	558	Figure 5. Release of a) odorant SCFA and d) less odorant SCFA during ALBS fermentation.
10 11	559	Error bars represent the standard deviation (n = 3) and plain lines represent the modelled
12 13	560	data.
14 15	561	Figure 6. Evolution of the different VOCs according to the chemical family during fermented
16	562	ALBS production
17 18	563	Figure 7. Evolution of a) total VOCs, acids and pyrazines and b) other VOCs families during
19 20	564	ALBS fermentation
21 22	565	Figure 8. PCA on molecules that evolve significantly during FALBS production (RS: raw seed)
23 24	566	Table 1. Most frequent VOCs produced during fermented ALB production
25	567	
26 27		
28		
29 30		
31		
32		
33		
34		
35		
30		
38		
39		
40		
41		
42 42		
43 44		
45		
46		
47		
48		
49 50		
51		
52		
53		
54		
55		
20 57		
58		
59		
60		

1 2		
- 3 4	568	
5	569	References
7	570	
8 9 10	571	Adeyemo, S. M., & Onilude, A. A. (2013). Enzymatic Reduction of Anti-nutritional Factors in
10 11 12	572	Fermenting Soybeans by Lactobacillus plantarum Isolates from Fermenting Cereals. Nigerian
13 14	573	Food Journal, 31(2), 84–90. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0189-7241(15)30080-1
15 16	574	Aisala, H., Sola, J., Hopia, A., Linderborg, K. M., & Sandell, M. (2019). Odor-contributing volatile
17 18 10	575	compounds of wild edible Nordic mushrooms analyzed with HS–SPME–GC–MS and HS–
20 21	576	SPME–GC–O/FID. Food Chemistry, 283, 566–578.
22 23	577	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2019.01.053
24 25	578	Akanni, G. B., De Kock, H. L., Naudé, Y., & Buys, E. M. (2018). Volatile compounds produced by
26 27 20	579	Bacillus species alkaline fermentation of bambara groundnut (Vigna subterranean (L.) Verdc)
28 29 30	580	into a dawadawa-type African food condiment using headspace solid-phase microextraction
31 32	581	and GC × GC–TOFMS. International Journal of Food Properties, 21(1), 930–942.
33 34	582	https://doi.org/10.1080/10942912.2018.1460757
35 36 27	583	Alfaia, C. M., Castro, M. F., Reis, V. A., Prates, J. M., de Almeida, I. T., Correia, A. D., & Dias, M. A.
37 38 39	584	(2004). Changes in the Profile of Free Amino Acids and Biogenic Amines During the
40 41	585	Extended Short Ripening of Portuguese Dry-Cured Ham. Food Science and Technology
42 43	586	International, 10(5), 297–304. https://doi.org/10.1177/1082013204047597
44 45	587	Alvarez, M. A., & Moreno-Arribas, M. V. (2014). The problem of biogenic amines in fermented foods
46 47 48	588	and the use of potential biogenic amine-degrading microorganisms as a solution. Trends in
49 50	589	Food Science & Technology, 39(2), 146–155. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tifs.2014.07.007
51 52	590	Amoa-Awua, W. K., Awusi, B., Owusu, M., Appiah, V., Ofori, H., Thorsen, L., & Jespersen, L. (2014).
53 54	591	Reducing the atypical odour of dawadawa: Effect of modification of fermentation conditions
55 56 57	592	and post-fermentation treatment on the development of the atypical odour of dawadawa.
58 59 60	593	Food Control, 42, 335–342. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2014.02.016

3 4	594	Azokpota, P., Hounhouigan, D. J., & Nago, M. C. (2006). Microbiological and chemical changes during
5 6	595	the fermentation of African locust bean (Parkia biglobosa) to produce afitin, iru and sonru,
7 8	596	three traditional condiments produced in Benin. International Journal of Food Microbiology,
9 10 11	597	107(3), 304–309. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2005.10.026
12 13	598	Besson, I., Creuly, C., Gros, J. B., & Larroche, C. (1997). Pyrazine production by Bacillus subtilis in
14 15	599	solid-state fermentation on soybeans. Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology, 47(5), 489–
16 17 18	600	495. https://doi.org/10.1007/s002530050961
19 20	601	Çalık, P., Çalık, G., & Özdamar, T. H. (2000). Oxygen-transfer strategy and its regulation effects in
21 22	602	serine alkaline protease production by Bacillus licheniformis. Biotechnology and
23 24	603	<i>Bioengineering</i> , 69(3), 301–311. https://doi.org/10.1002/1097-
25 26 27	604	0290(20000805)69:3<301::AID-BIT8>3.0.CO;2-4
27 28 29	605	Ciecierska, M. (2020). Cocoa beans of different origins and varieties and their derived products
30 31	606	contamination with polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. Food Chemistry, 317, 126408.
32 33	607	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2020.126408
34 35	608	Cohen, G., Laloush, M., & Karpas, Z. (2014). Biogenic amines in bread as indicators of spoilage.
36 37 38	609	International Journal for Ion Mobility Spectrometry, 17(3), 125–129.
39 40	610	https://doi.org/10.1007/s12127-014-0159-3
41 42	611	Corrales, C. V., Lebrun, M., Vaillant, F., Madec, M. N., Lortal, S., Pérez, A. M., & Fliedel, G. (2017). Key
43 44	612	odor and physicochemical characteristics of raw and roasted jicaro seeds (Crescentia alata
45 46 47	613	K.H.B.). Food Research International, 96, 113–120.
47 48 49	614	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2017.03.009
50 51	615	Dakwa, S., Sakyi-Dawson, E., Diako, C., Annan, N. T., & Amoa-Awua, W. K. (2005). Effect of boiling and
52 53	616	roasting on the fermentation of soybeans into dawadawa (soy-dawadawa). International
54 55	617	Journal of Food Microbiology, 104(1), 69–82.
56 57 58	618	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2005.02.006
59 60		

2 3	619	Dehaut, A., Himber, C., Mulak, V., Grard, T., Krzewinski, F., Le Fur, B., & Duflos, G. (2014). Evolution of
4 5	620	Volatile Compounds and Biogenic Amines throughout the Shelf Life of Marinated and Salted
6 7	621	Apphovies (Engraulis engracicalus) Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry 62(22) 8014-
8 9	021	Anchovies (Engradus encrasicolos). Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, 02(52), 8014–
10 11	622	8022. https://doi.org/10.1021/jf5021736
12 13	623	Dekeirsschieter, J., Verheggen, F. J., Gohy, M., Hubrecht, F., Bourguignon, L., Lognay, G., & Haubruge,
14 15	624	E. (2009). Cadaveric volatile organic compounds released by decaying pig carcasses (Sus
16 17	625	domesticus L.) in different biotopes. <i>Forensic Science International, 189</i> (1), 46–53.
18 19	626	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.forsciint.2009.03.034
20 21 22	627	Delgado, F. J., González-Crespo, J., Cava, R., & Ramírez, R. (2011). Free Fatty Acids and Oxidative
22 23 24	628	Changes of a Raw Goat Milk Cheese through Maturation. Journal of Food Science, 76(4),
25 26	629	C669–C673. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1750-3841.2011.02140.x
27 28	630	Dursun, A., Güler, Z., & Şekerli, Y. E. (2017). Characterization of volatile compounds and organic acids
29 30	631	in ultra-high-temperature milk packaged in tetra brik cartons. International Journal of Food
32 33	632	Properties, 20(7), 1511–1521. https://doi.org/10.1080/10942912.2016.1213280
34 35	633	Esenwah, C., & Ikenebomeh, M. (2008). Processing effects on the nutritional and anti-nutritional
36 37	634	contents of African locust bean (Parkia biglobosa Benth.) seed. Pakistan Journal of Nutrition,
38 39	635	7(2), 214–217.
40 41 42	636	Esse, M. Y., Guehi, T. S., Grabulos, J., Morel, G., Malomar, R. T., Tardan, E., Mestres, C., & Achir, N.
43 44	637	(2021). Fate of proteic and lipidic compounds during production of a traditional legume
45 46	638	condiment (Soumbala) made from African Locust Bean (Parkia biglobosa) seeds.
47 48	639	International Journal of Food Science & Technology, 56(2), 804–813.
49 50 51	640	https://doi.org/10.1111/ijfs.14724
52 53	641	Faccia, M., Trani, A., Natrella, G., & Gambacorta, G. (2018). Short communication: Chemical-sensory
54 55	642	and volatile compound characterization of ricotta forte, a traditional fermented whey
56 57 58 59 60	643	cheese. <i>Journal of Dairy Science, 101</i> (7), 5751–5757. https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2018-14424

2		
3 4	644	FAO/WHO/UNU. (2007). Protein and amino acid requirements in human nutrition : report of a joint
5 6	645	FAO/WHO/UNU expert consultation. WHO Technical Report Series, 935, 265.
7 8	646	Feng, Y., Liu, M., Ouyang, Y., Zhao, X., Ju, Y., & Fang, Y. (2015). Comparative study of aromatic
9 10 11	647	compounds in fruit wines from raspberry, strawberry, and mulberry in central Shaanxi area.
12 13	648	Food & Nutrition Research, 59(1), 29290. https://doi.org/10.3402/fnr.v59.29290
14 15	649	Granito, M., Frias, J., Doblado, R., Guerra, M., Champ, M., & Vidal-Valverde, C. (2002). Nutritional
16 17	650	improvement of beans (Phaseolus vulgaris) by natural fermentation. European Food
18 19 20	651	Research and Technology, 214(3), 226–231. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00217-001-0450-5
20 21 22	652	Huet, S., Jolivet, E., & Messéan, A. (1992). La régression non-linéaire: méthodes et applications en
23 24	653	biologie.
25 26	654	Ito, H., Ueno, H., & Kikuzaki, H. (2018). Free Amino Acid Compositions for Fruits. Journal of Nutrition
27 28 29	655	and Dietetic Practice. http://sciaeon.org/JNDP/free-amino-acid-compositions-for-fruits.php
30 31	656	Kim, J. S., & Chung, H. Y. (2008). Components in Commercial Douchi—a Chinese Fermented Black
32 33	657	Bean Product by Supercritical Fluid Extraction. Journal of Food Science and Nutrition, 12–17.
34 35 26	658	Kouakou-Kouamé, C. A., N'guessan, F. K., Montet, D., & Djè, M. K. (2020). Biogenic Amine, Fatty Acid,
30 37 38	659	and Volatile Compound Contents in Ivorian Traditionally Fermented Fish "Adjuevan."
39 40	660	Preventive Nutrition and Food Science, 25(1), 98–107. PubMed.
41 42	661	https://doi.org/10.3746/pnf.2020.25.1.98
43 44	662	Krishnan, H. B. (2005). Engineering Soybean for Enhanced Sulfur Amino Acid Content. Crop Science,
45 46 47	663	45(2), 454–461. https://doi.org/10.2135/cropsci2005.0454
48 49	664	Kuhnert, N., D'souza, R. N., Behrends, B., Ullrich, M. S., & Witt, M. (2020). Investigating time
50 51	665	dependent cocoa bean fermentation by ESI-FT-ICR mass spectrometry. Food Research
52 53	666	International, 133, 109209. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2020.109209
54 55 56	667	Lee, YC., Kung, HF., Huang, CY., Huang, TC., & Tsai, YH. (2016). Reduction of histamine and
57 58 59 60	668	biogenic amines during salted fish fermentation by Bacillus polymyxa as a starter culture.

1 2		
2 3 4	669	Journal of Food and Drug Analysis, 24(1), 157–163.
5 6	670	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfda.2015.02.002
7 8	671	Licht, B. H., Shaw, K., Smith, C., Mendoza, M., Orr, J., & Myers, D. V. (1992). Characterization of
9 10 11 12 13 14 15	672	Caramel Colours I, II and III. Food and Chemical Toxicology, 30(5), 375–382.
	673	https://doi.org/10.1016/0278-6915(92)90063-Q
	674	Lioe, H. N., Selamat, J., & Yasuda, M. (2010). Soy Sauce and Its Umami Taste: A Link from the Past to
16 17	675	Current Situation. Journal of Food Science, 75(3), R71–R76. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1750-
18 19	676	3841.2010.01529.x
20 21 22	677	LU, M., AN, H., & WANG, D. (2017). Characterization of Amino Acid Composition in Fruits of Three
23 24	678	Rosa roxburghii Genotypes. Horticultural Plant Journal, 3(6), 232–236.
25 26	679	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hpj.2017.08.001
27 28 20	680	Maraval, I., Mestres, C., Pernin, K., Ribeyre, F., Boulanger, R., Guichard, E., & Gunata, Z. (2008). Odor-
29 30 31 32 33 34 35	681	Active Compounds in Cooked Rice Cultivars from Camargue (France) Analyzed by GC–O and
	682	GC–MS. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, 56(13), 5291–5298.
	683	https://doi.org/10.1021/jf7037373
36 37	684	Mathus, T. L., Townsend, D. E., & Miller, K. W. (1995). Anaerobic biogenesis of phenol and p-cresol
38 39 40	685	from l-tyrosine. <i>Fuel, 74</i> (10), 1505–1508. https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-2361(95)00109-I
41 42	686	Mohamed, N., Hashim, R., Rahman, N. A., & Zain, S. M. (2001). An insight to the cleavage of [beta]-
43 44	687	carotene to vitamin A: a molecular mechanics study. Journal of Molecular Structure:
45 46	688	<i>THEOCHEM</i> , <i>538</i> (1–3), 245–252.
47 48 49	689	Moore, S., Spackman, D. H., & Stein, W. H. (1958). Chromatography of Amino Acids on Sulfonated
50 51	690	Polystyrene Resins. An Improved System. Analytical Chemistry, 30, 1185–1190.
52 53 54 55	691	https://doi.org/10.1021/ac60139a005
	692	Noronha, N., Cronin, D. A., O'Riordan, E. D., & O'Sullivan, M. (2008). Flavouring of imitation cheese
57 58 59 60	693	with enzyme-modified cheeses (EMCs): Sensory impact and measurement of aroma active

Journal of Food Processing and Preservation

Page 26 of 40

1 ว		
2 3 4	694	short chain fatty acids (SCFAs). Food Chemistry, 106(3), 905–913.
5 6	695	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2007.06.059
7 8	696	Odunfa, S. A. (1985). Biochemical changes in fermenting African locust bean (Parkia biglobosa) during
9 10 11	697	'iru' fermentation. International Journal of Food Science & Technology, 20(3), 295–303.
12 13	698	https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2621.1985.tb00379.x
14 15	699	Odunfa, S. A. (1988). African fermented foods: from art to science. MIRCEN Journal of Applied
16 17	700	Microbiology and Biotechnology, 4(3), 259–273. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01096132
18 19 20	701	Omafuvbe, B., Falade, O., Osuntogun, B., & Adewusi, S. (2004). Chemical and biochemical changes in
20 21 22	702	African locust bean (Parkia biglobosa) and melon (Citrullus vulgaris) seeds during
23 24	703	fermentation to condiments. <i>Pakistan Journal of Nutrition</i> , 3(3), 140–145.
25 26	704	Ordóñez, J. L., Callejón, R. M., Troncoso, A. M., & García–Parrilla, M. C. (2017). Evaluation of biogenic
27 28 20	705	amines profile in opened wine bottles: Effect of storage conditions. Journal of Food
29 30 31	706	Composition and Analysis, 63, 139–147. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfca.2017.07.042
32 33	707	Ouoba, L. I. I., Diawara, B., Annan, N. T., Poll, L., & Jakobsen, M. (2005). Volatile compounds of
34 35	708	Soumbala, a fermented African locust bean (Parkia biglobosa) food condiment. Journal of
36 37 28	709	<i>Applied Microbiology, 99</i> (6), 1413–1421. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2672.2005.02722.x
30 39 40	710	Ouoba, L. I. I., Rechinger, K. B., Barkholt, V., Diawara, B., Traore, A. S., & Jakobsen, M. (2003).
41 42	711	Degradation of proteins during the fermentation of African locust bean (Parkia biglobosa) by
43 44	712	strains of Bacillus subtilis and Bacillus pumilus for production of Soumbala. Journal of Applied
45 46 47	713	<i>Microbiology</i> , <i>94</i> (3), 396–402. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2672.2003.01845.x
47 48 49	714	Owens, J. D., Allagheny, N. N., Kipping, G. J., & Ames, J. M. (1997). Formation of volatile compounds
50 51	715	during Bacillus subtilis fermentation of soya beans. Journal of the Science of Food and
52 53	716	Agriculture, 74, 132–140.
54 55 56	717	Pasvolsky, R., Zakin, V., Ostrova, I., & Shemesh, M. (2014). Butyric acid released during milk lipolysis
57 58	718	triggers biofilm formation of Bacillus species. International Journal of Food Microbiology,
59 60	719	181, 19–27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2014.04.013

720	Peleg, M., Corradini, M. G., & Normand, M. D. (2007). The logistic (Verhulst) model for sigmoid								
721	microbial growth curves revisited. Food Research International, 40(7), 808–818.								
722	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2007.01.012								
723	Poveda, Justa María, Sánchez-Palomo, Eva, Pérez-Coello, María Soledad, & Cabezas, Lourdes. (2008).								
724	Volatile composition, olfactometry profile and sensory evaluation of semi-hard Spanish goat								
725	cheeses. <i>Dairy Sci. Technol., 88</i> (3), 355–367. https://doi.org/10.1051/dst:2007021								
726	Qian, M., & Reineccius, G. (2002). Identification of Aroma Compounds in Parmigiano-Reggiano								
727	Cheese by Gas Chromatography/Olfactometry. Journal of Dairy Science, 85(6), 1362–1369.								
728	https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.S0022-0302(02)74202-1								
729	Rabie, M., Simon-Sarkadi, L., Siliha, H., El-seedy, S., & El Badawy, AA. (2009). Changes in free amino								
730	acids and biogenic amines of Egyptian salted-fermented fish (Feseekh) during ripening and								
731	storage. Food Chemistry, 115(2), 635–638. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2008.12.077								
732	Reddy, N. R. (2018). Legume Based Fermented Foods.								
733	Schueuermann, C., Khakimov, B., Engelsen, S. B., Bremer, P., & Silcock, P. (2016). GC-MS Metabolite								
734	Profiling of Extreme Southern Pinot noir Wines: Effects of Vintage, Barrel Maturation, and								
735	Fermentation Dominate over Vineyard Site and Clone Selection. Journal of Agricultural and								
736	Food Chemistry, 64(11), 2342–2351. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jafc.5b05861								
737	Schwan, R. F. (1998). Cocoa fermentations conducted with a defined microbial cocktail inoculum.								
738	Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 64(4), 1477–1483. PubMed.								
739	https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.64.4.1477-1483.1998								
740	Song, Z., Jia, Q., Shi, M., Feng, T., & Song, S. (2019). Studies on the Origin of Carbons in Aroma								
741	Compounds from [13C6]Glucose -Cysteine-(E)-2-Nonenal Model Reaction Systems. Polymers,								
742	11(3). https://doi.org/10.3390/polym11030521								
743	Virgili, R., Saccani, G., Gabba, L., Tanzi, E., & Soresi Bordini, C. (2007). Changes of free amino acids								
744	and biogenic amines during extended ageing of Italian dry-cured ham. LWT - Food Science								
745	and Technology, 40(5), 871–878. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2006.03.024								
	<ul> <li>720</li> <li>721</li> <li>722</li> <li>723</li> <li>726</li> <li>726</li> <li>727</li> <li>728</li> <li>729</li> <li>730</li> <li>731</li> <li>732</li> <li>733</li> <li>734</li> <li>735</li> <li>736</li> <li>737</li> <li>738</li> <li>739</li> <li>740</li> <li>741</li> <li>742</li> <li>743</li> <li>744</li> <li>745</li> </ul>								

3 4	746	Yang, J., Rasa, E., Tantayotai, P., Scow, K. M., Yuan, H., & Hristova, K. R. (2011). Mathematical model
5 6	747	of Chlorella minutissima UTEX2341 growth and lipid production under photoheterotrophic
7 8	748	fermentation conditions. <i>Bioresource Technology</i> , 102(3), 3077–3082.
9 10 11	749	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2010.10.049
12 13	750	Yoon, H., Park, J. H., Choi, A., Hwang, HJ., & Mah, JH. (2015). Validation of an HPLC Analytical
14 15	751	Method for Determination of Biogenic Amines in Agricultural Products and Monitoring of
16 17	752	Biogenic Amines in Korean Fermented Agricultural Products. Toxicological Research, 31(3),
18 19 20	753	299–305. PubMed. https://doi.org/10.5487/tr.2015.31.3.299
20 21 22	754	Yusuf, O. I. S., & Rahji, M. A. Y. (2012). The Processing and Preference for Locust Bean Products
23 24	755	(Parkia Biglobosa) in Lagos, Nigeria. Journal of Biology, Agriculture and Healthcare, 2.
25 26	756	Zhan, H., Hayat, K., Cui, H., Hussain, S., Ho, CT., & Zhang, X. (2020). Characterization of flavor active
27 28 20	757	non-volatile compounds in chicken broth and correlated contributing constituent compounds
29 30 31	758	in muscle through sensory evaluation and partial least square regression analysis. LWT, 118,
32 33	759	108786. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2019.108786
34 35	760	Zhang, C., Hua, Y., Li, X., Kong, X., & Chen, Y. (2020). Key volatile off-flavor compounds in peas (Pisum
36 37	761	sativum L.) and their relations with the endogenous precursors and enzymes using soybean
38 39 40	762	(Glycine max) as a reference. <i>Food Chemistry, 333</i> , 127469.
40 41 42	763	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2020.127469
43 44	764	Zhang, H., Wang, L., Tan, Y., Wang, H., Yang, F., Chen, L., Hao, F., Lv, X., Du, H., & Xu, Y. (2021). Effect
45 46	765	of Pichia on shaping the fermentation microbial community of sauce-flavor Baijiu.
47 48 40	766	International Journal of Food Microbiology, 336, 108898.
49 50 51	767	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2020.108898
52 53	768	Zhang, Y., Fraatz, M. A., Birk, F., Rigling, M., Hammer, A., & Zorn, H. (2018). Enantiomeric ratios of 2-
54 55	769	methylbutanoic acid and its methyl ester: Elucidation of novel biogenetic pathways towards
56 57 58	770	(R)-methyl 2-methylbutanoate in a beverage fermented with shiitake. Food Chemistry, 266,
59 60	771	475–482. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2018.06.027

5	
6	
7	
8	
9	
10	
11	
12	
13	
14	
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	
24	
25	
20	
28	
29	
30	
31	
32	
33	
34 25	
36	
37	
38	
39	
40	
41	
42	
43	
44 45	
45	
47	
48	
49	
50	
51	
52	
53	

 to Review Only



Values bearing different letters for the same parameter are significantly different (p<0.05).

# Figure 1. Evolution of macro-constituents during fermentation of ALBS



Figure 2. Release in g/100 g DB of a) free amino acids (AA), b) ammonium (NH₄<sup>+</sup>), c) free fatty acids (FFA), d) biogenic amines (BA), e) short chain fatty acids (SCFA) during ALBS fermentation. Error bars represent the standard deviation (n = 3) and lines represent the modelled data.





ALBS



Figure 4. Release of a), b), c) free amino acids and d) biogenic amines during ALBS fermentation. Error bars represent the standard deviation (n = 3) and lines represent the modelled data.



Figure 5. Release of a) odorant SCFA and d) less odorant SCFA during ALBS fermentation. Error bars represent the standard deviation (n = 3) and plain lines represent the modelled data.







**ALBS** fermentation



Figure 8. PCA on molecules that evolve significantly during FALBS production (RS: raw seed)

		Odor	Assumed bioreaction origine	Odor threshold (μg/kg) in water	Product	References	Present in ALBS
Acids	3-methyl-butanoic acid (isovaleric acid)	acidic, sour, pungent,	produced from branched-chained amino acids such as valine, leucine, and isoleucine during fermentation	120	Bambara bean	Akanni (2018)	
	2-methyl-butanoic acid			100	Bambara bean	Akanni (2018)	
	2-methyl butenoic (tiglic acid)	Ripe fruit			Beverage fermented with shiitake	Zhang (2018)	
	2-methyl-propanoic acid (isobutyric acid)	Meat, cheese	- -		Adjuevan	Kouakou-Kouame (2020)	
	Ethanoic acid (Acetic acid)	sour, vinegar note	Oxidation of ethanol		Bambara bean	Akanni (2018)	
	Butanoic acid (butyric acid)	rancid, cheesy			Cheese	Delgado (2011)	
	Propanoic acid (Propionic acid)	pungent acidic cheesy vinegar	hydrolysis triglycerides by lipases		Milk	Dursun (2017)	
Pyrazines	2,5-dimethyl-pyrazine	chocolate, roasted nut		800			
	trimethyl-pyrazine	roasted, burnt notes	from free amino acid liberation and	400	Bambara bean	Akanni (2018)	
	2,6-dimethyl-pyrazine	chocolate, roasted nut, fried potatoes	heating	200			
	tetramethyl-pyrazine	nutty, musty, chocolate		1000			
Alcohols	1-Hexanol	Herbal, fusel oil, alcoholic		20000	*		yes
	Phenylethyl Alcohol	Floral, rose, honey	-	20000	*		
	1-Octen-3-ol	mushroom and fermented-like odor	oxidation of linoleic acid		Bambara bean, Adjuevan	Akanni (2018), Kouakou-Kouame (2020)	
	1-Octanol	waxy, paint jar			mushrooms	Aisala (2019)	
	3-Octen-1-ol	fatty fruity herbal					
	Ethanol	Alcoholic	fermentation of sugars		bambara	Akanni (2018)	yes
	Benzyl alcohol	pleasant, fruity	-		bambara	Akanni (2018)	
	2-Octen-1-ol	Dust, cement, mushroom	reduction of aldehydes		Milk	Dursun (2017)	
	2,3-Butanediol	rubber, fruity, creamy, and buttery	produced from branched-chained amino acids		Bambara bean	Akanni (2018)	yes
Aldehydes	Benzaldehyde	pleasant, sweet, aromatic note	cysteine heating, heat generated compound, amino-acids catabolism	350	Bambara bean milk, anchovies	Akanni (2018), Dursun, Dehaut (2014)	
	Butanal (butyraldehyde)	Aldehydic, fruity			African locust bean	Ouoba (2015)	yes
	Hexanal	green odor, fat	oxidative cleavage of lipids	4.5	bambara, African locust bean, anchovies, Adjuevan	Akanni (2018), Ouoba (2015)	yes

						Kouakou-Kouame (2020)	
	3-methyl-butanal (isovaleraldehyde)	Malty, almond	oxidative cleavage of lipids, amino acid catabolism (L-Leucine)	1.1	African locust bean, anchovies	Ouoba (2015) Dehaut (2014)	
Esters	Benzeneacetic acid methyl ester	1	1				
	Ethyl acetate Acetic acid methyl ester						Ves
							yes
	Methyl Isovalerate - ester		esters comes from chemical reactions between microbial acidic and alcoholic metabolites				
	Butanoic acid 2-methyl- ester	Floral and fruity notes			Bambara , Adjuevan	Akanni (2018), Kouakou-Kouame (2020)	
	Butanoic acid methyl ester						yes
	Acetic acid butyl ester						ye
	Butanoic acid butyl ester						ye
Ketones	Acetoin	butter-like aroma	Product of carbohydrates metabolism	800	bambara	Akanni (2018),	
	2-Decanone	orange like floral*					
	2-Octanone	butter-like aroma*			Fruit wine	Feng (2015)	ye
	Benzyl methyl ketone						
	Acetone		products of lipids and or amino acids degradation		ALBS	Ouoba (2015)	
	Acetophenone Results	sweet and floral odors, almond			Adjuevan	Kouakou-Kouame (2020)	
	2,3-Butanedione	toffee, butter, candy	Fermentation of sugars		anchovies, mushrooms	Dehaut (2014), Aisala (2019)	ye
	Bicyclo[3.1.1]hept-3-en-2-one, 4,6,6- trimethyl	Camphoreous *					ye
Amides	Butanamide						
	Acetamide				Cocoa beans	Kuhnert (2020)	
	N-(3-Methylbutyl) acetamide		reactions of peptides with Acids		Wine	Schueuermann (2016)	
	Propanamide						
	2-methyl-propanamide,						
	3-methyl-butanamide						
Others	Phenol	sickening, sweet and	heat-generated compounds		Milk	Dursun (2017)	
	1-Butanamine	irritating					
		fruity groop corthy bogging			Pailiu	Zhang (2021)	
		multy green eartiny peany			Daijiu	Zildlig (ZUZT)	yes
		vegetable *					

	Carlage disulfide	where we are a sufficient a share	entidektern of the medication culture	have have Adilly	Aliana; (2010)				
	Carbon disumde	pungent and sulfury odors	compounds	Dambara, Wilk	Akanni (2018), Dursun (2017)	yes			
	1,3-dimethyl-benzene,					yes			
	Toluene					yes			
	2-pentyl-thiophene,	Wine	thermal degradation of lipid oxidation products with amino acids and reducing sugars, cysteine	Model media	Song (2019)				
	Oxime methoxy-phenyl		reaction aldehydes or ketones with a nitrogen-containing reducing agent in a weakly acidic medium	Milk	Dursun (2017)	yes			
	Ethylbenzene	gasoline				yes			
	3-Acetyl-1H-pyrroline	popcorn, basmati rice		Tomato pepper pomace, mushrooms	Aisala (2019)				
	Glycerin					yes			
	Trimethyl-oxazole	Nutty, sweet, green							
	Indole	manure, burnt		Adjuevan	Kouakou-Kouame (2020)	yes			
	2-Piperidinone	ammoniacal, pepper-like		mushrooms	Aisala (2019)				
	D-Limonene	orange*							
/www	w.thegoodscentscompany.com/d	ata/rw1007681.html	194 On/						
1. M	Most frequent VOCs produced during fermented ALB production								

\*http://www.thegoodscentscompany.com/data/rw1007681.html

Table 1. Most frequent VOCs produced during fermented ALB production